

Route to

Biology

School Life



World Understanding
Begins With Children

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Cover photograph, courtesy, Department of Public Information, United Nations, carries the caption, "To live together in peace with one another . . ." The photograph appears in a recently issued Office of Education publication, "World Understanding Begins With Children," by Delia Goetz, Specialist in Preparation and Exchange of Educational Materials, Division of International Educational Relations. The bulletin, 1949 No. 17, should be ordered from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C., price 15 cents.

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School Life is indexed in Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature, and in Education Index.

(Single copy price of SCHOOL LIFE—15 cents.)

School Life Spotlight

"Sanitary conditions in the schools have been improved during recent decades, but many new and old buildings are still poorly maintained . . ."----- p. 113

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"The reading level of most books, pamphlets, and magazines is too difficult for millions of American adults . . ."----- p. 115

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"You don't have to be in Washington to view the exhibits of the Smithsonian Institution . . ."----- p. 117

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"Probably most important of all, they learned how to pool their information and to use suggestions from many different people . . ."----- p. 118

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"With few exceptions, State constitutions make it obligatory upon their respective legislatures to provide for the establishment and maintenance of efficient systems of public schools . . ."----- p. 122

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THE Office of Education was established in 1867 "for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country."



An insanitary drinking fountain for school children in a Southern community.

Sanitation in Many School Buildings Deplorable

by Nelson E. Viles, School Plant Management, Division of School Administration

SCHOOL PUPILS may become inured to the lack of adequate school sanitary services but they never become immune to the possible effects of poor school sanitation. Headline publicity is given to the lack of trained school teachers and to the need for school buildings because of overcrowding, but we often fail to show that millions of children are now attending school in buildings lacking the necessary facilities and services to protect their health. We should realize that: *Every child forced by law to attend school is entitled to a healthful environment.*

Children coming from various homes to school are potential carriers for any disease germs that may be present in their homes. These children are often crowded together and have many personal physical contacts

in school. They use common sanitary and drinking facilities and make common use of various supplies, tools, and facilities.

Many of the school children lack adequate home sanitary facilities for body service or protection. Some of them have suitable bathing facilities only when at school. Health and sanitary patterns established in the school probably will have a marked effect on future living standards and habits. The schools should endeavor to educate the whole child. He should be given an opportunity to develop ideals, health protection, and living patterns that will assist him to adapt to later life conditions. It may be as important to help him develop desirable concepts of sanitary living as to help him attain proficiency in some phases of educational achievement.

Sanitary conditions in the schools have been improved during recent decades, but many new and old buildings are still poorly maintained. The conditions in some buildings indicate an unawareness of the importance of and the principles to be followed in school sanitation. The following are only a few of the illustrations of some of the bad conditions.

Is Yours Like This?

A three-story and full basement junior high school in a metropolitan area, housing 1,300 children, has one dark dirty odorous basement toilet room at one corner of the building for the 620 to 670 boys housed therein. There are only five or six lavatories with no hot water. There are no hand-washing facilities near the dining room. There are no showers. Toilet

room floors are wet; slate urinals are odorous. The walls are rough and positive ventilation is not available for the room. The lunchroom near the center of the building in the basement has a kitchen next to a small dusty playground. There are no ventilating facilities other than through the windows. This is not a slum area building. It is in a nice residential part of the city.

A rural consolidated elementary school is located in a good farming region, rural electricity is available, water is supplied by an approved well and is under pressure. The boys' toilet room, accessible only by going outside, has three or four stools. Only one has been in operative condition for some weeks. This stool was a frostproof bowl with no water seal. The stool was badly chipped, water stained, badly encrusted, and odorous. The urinals were a short dirty galvanized iron trough. The place was filthy but had to serve about 140 boys each day.

The above are not isolated cases. In one section of a city there are 2,400 pupils without any shower service in the schools, with no hot water in the lavatories, with a part of the pupils housed in a building over 100 years old, and with all rooms crowded, in fact many of them are on double sessions. The citizens of this city are not fully informed of the conditions in their schools. If they were aware of such conditions they might feel it undesirable to permit their children to attend school until improvements are made. School officials have an obligation to inform the local citizens and patrons of the needs of their children.

Areas of Poor Sanitation

It is not feasible to describe or even list here all of the various areas in school buildings where sanitation becomes a serious problem. In the two areas mentioned here sanitation often is not satisfactory and the effects of poor sanitation in these areas may be felt quickly.

Toilet rooms.—A lack of adequate planning and poor installations are partly responsible for the low sanitary standards in toilet, shower, and other sanitary service rooms. In addition maintenance is often inadequate. The following is only a partial listing of some of the conditions often found. Drinking fountain heads are not always properly shielded. The flow is not regulated and pupils' lips may touch openings when drinking. Fountains are not adjusted in height to the pupils using them. Many are not properly cleaned, are unat-

tractive, have accumulations of dirt, chewing gum, etc., in them. In many cases lavatories do not have hot water, or temperature is not regulated, and the hot and cold water are delivered through separate spigots. Lavatories are not adjusted to the size of pupils using them and, in some cases, towels and soap are not provided. In many cases toilet stools are dirty and are difficult to maintain. Sometimes they are not properly set. Bad conditions such as the following are too common: Small water seal in stool, rough or chipped stool surfaces, iron and other water deposit streaks on stools, seats broken, dirt in throat or up under rim of the stools.

The toilet rooms should be so designed that they may be maintained easily. There

Some Needs in School Sanitation

1. A public awareness of need is essential. School officials should realize the importance of and know the basic principles of school sanitation.
2. Responsibility for school sanitation should be fixed. If the school organizations or school officials cannot do the job it should be turned over to those who can do it. The health of the children should not be endangered while we wait to determine the line of authority or to train a new set of officials.
3. School-sanitation programs should be set up on a planned basis. Standards of performance should be established. Each school official or employee should understand his or her obligation in maintaining these standards. Deviations should be reported immediately.
4. The program once established must be maintained. Maintenance will require an adequate inspection service. This inspection service should be coupled with enforcement powers. It is realized that in many cases these procedures will extend beyond the autonomy of the small local school district. When the health of the children is involved we cannot afford to give more attention to local control desires than to the protection of the child and his health.

should be positive ventilation separate from other ventilating systems for the building. The floors should be of impervious materials. It is particularly important that the floor around the urinals be impervious, preferably nonslip, and that it slope to the urinals. The walls, floors, ceilings, and toilet stalls should have smooth surfaces to facilitate cleaning and be nonodor absorbing. Odors either of decaying organic matter or of deodorizing blocks should be absent. Thorough daily cleaning should be a must. Dressing rooms should be adequately ventilated.

Lunchroom service.—The growth of the lunchroom service during recent years has created demands for space and services not available in most of the older and many new school buildings. In many cases the lunchrooms have been put in the basement or other poorly adapted areas. If the schools expect to provide lunch service they should make plans to meet the most rigid existing State and/or city sanitary requirements for commercial caterers. In too many cases verminproof storage with proper temperature controls is not available.

A study by the Cleanliness Bureau¹ on sanitary facilities in 1949 reported that less than one-half of the schools in America have acceptable sanitary and washing facilities. Conditions were generally worse in the States having the poorer buildings and having less funds for operating costs. One State reported that not more than 10 percent of its schools were equipped with adequate sanitary facilities, another that only 25 percent of its schools had adequate hand-washing facilities. School officials felt that specific attention should be given to the improvement of sanitary facilities. School officials also report that REA programs had made it possible for many rural schools to provide running water and other desirable sanitary facilities. It was generally felt that all schools should have running water, water flush toilets, hot and cold water for wash basins, and shower-bath facilities, and should provide soap, towels, and toilet paper. Many of the older washrooms are poorly planned and poorly located.

Preventive Sanitation

Every school building should be designed for sanitary service. An examination of

(Continued on page 125)

¹ Report on a Pilot Questionnaire Addressed to School Administrators in 48 States. Cleanliness Bureau, 11 West Forty-second Street, New York City. p. 3.

Simpler Reading Materials Needed for 50,000,000 Adults

by Homer Kempfer, Specialist for General Adult and Post-High-School Education

THE READING LEVEL of most books, pamphlets, and magazines is too difficult for millions of American adults according to the results of a recent inquiry. Fifty-six librarians and evening school principals throughout the United States were asked: "At what grade levels of readability is there the greatest shortage of suitable reading material for adults?" Answers reported below show a gap between the barely literate level and the full adult level.

Grade level	Frequency of mention	Grade level	Frequency of mention
1-----	14	6-----	27
2-----	15	7-----	18
3-----	21	8-----	14
4-----	27	9-----	7
5-----	32	High school and above-----	8

Plenty of other evidence points up the need for easy materials—at the sixth-grade level or below.

1. Nearly one-seventh of our adults age 25 and above have not gone beyond the fourth grade.

2. Nearly one-half of all adults have not finished more than the ninth grade. Because of forgetting and other reasons, adults usually read comfortably two or three grades below their last grade of schooling.

3. Two-thirds of our people never frequent libraries—partly because the bulk of material contained therein is too difficult for them.

4. Annual sales of adult trade books never exceed one for every four adults. Only 25 percent of our population read books, as against 50 percent magazines, and 95 percent newspapers.

5. Easy-to-read magazines are enormously popular.

A growing amount of instructional material is being written for adult illiterates including several items produced by the Literacy Education Project recently sponsored by the Office of Education.¹ The shortage

is in intermediate material of diverse content easy enough for those who have only a modicum of reading skill. This dearth of material endangers the skills of those adults who have learned to read only at the second-, third-, or fourth-grade level. Reading skills, like other language skills, must be maintained and, if at a low level, must be improved for efficient use. Several million adults, aside from the outright illiterates, are too weak in reading skill to profit even from tabloids. Much of this represents either failure to acquire sufficient skill or deterioration of reading skills once possessed. The shortage of easy reading materials is a major contributing cause of both. The increased effectiveness of advertising, the enlargement of markets, and the general improvement of both vocational and general competence which could result from making all adults functionally literate is incalculably great.

Much of this need for materials is in the nonfiction field as indicated by answers to this question: "How acute is the need for more nonfiction reading material for adults who can read only at the third-, fourth-, or fifth-grade levels—adults who cannot handle normal 'adult' materials of eighth-grade level or higher?" The answers and number of times mentioned: Little, 15; moderate, 10; considerable, 18; great, 12; no answer, 1.

The fields of needed material were explored by another question: "In what subject fields is the need for materials of low and intermediate difficulty most acute?"

Subject	Frequency of mention
Citizenship-----	23
Homemaking-----	20
Family life and parent education-----	19
Science and technology-----	18
Health-----	17
Business-----	15
Consumer education-----	9
Arts and crafts-----	8
Intercultural-----	8
Public speaking-----	8
Recreation-----	7
Elementary education-----	5
Fiction-----	5

Subject	Frequency of mention
Letter writing-----	4
Mathematics-----	3
Vocational-----	3
Miscellaneous-----	3

What's the Answer?

The best answer, of course, is to eliminate illiteracy entirely and to raise reading skills to full adult level both among adults and the stream of youth passing the compulsory school ages each year. This would (1) require more money for buildings and teachers to extend and improve our elementary education so that youth could not grow up in illiteracy and (2) an energetic literacy campaign among our millions of illiterate adults.

Another answer, partial at best, is to prepare and distribute materials of diverse content, suitable for adults of low reading ability.

Preparation of materials, while requiring skills not widely found, may be the easier problem. Word lists, readability formulas, and a number of other tools developed by research make it possible for a writer with reasonably good language facility to learn to write at a given grade level without sacrificing an appealing style. Adaptation of materials to lower grade levels can also be learned. Reading experts have already helped some government departments, newspapers, and other publishers to reduce the difficulty of their publications. Most of this, however, has been a reduction from the difficult technical to the average level; little of it has benefited the below-average reader. Enough simplification has been done, however, to demonstrate that it is practicable.

Distribution seems to be the key problem. Most of the market is not organized for mass sale as is true of the textbook market. Only a very small percentage of illiterate adults are in literacy classes each year. Unless the materials can be given away, mass sale

(Continued on page 127)

¹ See *SCHOOL LIFE*, 32:74, February 1950.

Rising Enrollments in Nonpublic Schools

by Rose Marie Smith, Educational Statistician
Research and Statistical Service

NONPUBLIC elementary and secondary school enrollments increased by 24 percent between the school year 1937-38, a normal prewar year, and the current year, 1949-50. Three and a half million children are enrolled in nonpublic schools today. This is about 12 percent of the 29,000,000 pupils enrolled in all elementary and secondary schools.

Perhaps more significant than the rise in actual numbers is the increasing proportion of all children enrolled in nonpublic schools. During the school year 1937-38 nonpublic school enrollments constituted 9.5 percent of the 28,854,121 pupils enrolled in all schools. Twelve years later, in 1949-50, nonpublic schools enrolled 11.8 percent of the 29,000,000 total. Should the trend of the past 12 years continue, it is expected that by the school year 1959-60, enrollments in nonpublic schools will exceed 5,000,000 and will constitute about 13.6 percent of the total enrollments in elementary

Table 1.—Enrollments in Public and Nonpublic Elementary and Secondary Schools Biennially From 1926 to 1948, and Forecasts of Enrollments for Each Year From 1950 to 1960

School year ended	Enrollments in elementary and secondary schools (kindergarten through grade 12)		
	Total	Public	Nonpublic
1926.....	27,259,227	24,770,073	2,489,154
1928.....	27,879,233	25,209,272	2,669,961
1930.....	28,388,346	25,705,301	2,683,045
1932.....	29,159,525	26,347,366	2,812,159
1934.....	29,358,859	26,595,728	2,763,131
1936.....	29,206,054	26,516,035	2,690,019
1938.....	28,854,121	26,112,467	2,741,654
1940.....	28,229,664	25,569,719	2,659,945
1942.....	27,351,496	24,687,879	2,663,617
1944.....	26,115,426	23,388,426	2,727,000
1946.....	26,288,541	23,437,546	2,850,995
1948.....	27,134,126	24,036,505	3,097,621
1950.....	29,000,000	25,591,000	3,409,000
1951.....	29,828,000	26,259,000	3,569,000
1952.....	30,636,000	26,907,000	3,729,000
1953.....	32,327,000	28,329,000	3,998,000
1954.....	33,861,000	29,610,000	4,251,000
1955.....	35,209,000	30,722,000	4,487,000
1956.....	36,159,000	31,484,000	4,675,000
1957.....	36,784,000	31,966,000	4,818,000
1958.....	37,186,000	32,251,000	4,935,000
1959.....	37,105,000	32,117,000	4,988,000
1960.....	37,138,000	32,080,000	5,058,000

¹ Revised since originally published.

Table 2.—Enrollments in Public and Nonpublic Elementary Schools Biennially From 1926 to 1948, and Forecasts of Enrollments for Each Year From 1950 to 1960

School year ended	Enrollments in elementary schools (kindergarten through grade 8)		
	Total	Public	Nonpublic
1926.....	23,127,102	20,984,002	2,143,100
1928.....	23,557,872	21,268,417	2,289,455
1930.....	23,588,479	21,278,593	2,309,886
1932.....	23,566,653	21,182,472	2,384,181
1934.....	23,262,371	20,880,120	2,382,251
1936.....	22,770,351	20,495,767	2,274,584
1938.....	22,106,447	19,842,744	2,263,703
1940.....	21,106,655	18,934,382	2,172,273
1942.....	20,418,231	18,267,335	2,150,896
1944.....	19,990,770	17,803,770	2,187,000
1946.....	20,051,408	17,773,018	2,278,390
1948.....	20,828,958	18,360,568	2,468,390
1950.....	22,760,000	20,006,000	2,754,000
1951.....	23,686,000	20,780,000	2,906,000
1952.....	24,468,000	21,424,000	3,044,000
1953.....	26,064,000	22,777,000	3,287,000
1954.....	27,453,000	23,945,000	3,508,000
1955.....	28,652,000	24,942,000	3,710,000
1956.....	29,334,000	25,485,000	3,849,000
1957.....	29,498,000	25,578,000	3,920,000
1958.....	29,433,000	25,471,000	3,962,000
1959.....	29,004,000	25,051,000	3,953,000
1960.....	28,789,000	24,816,000	3,973,000

¹ Revised since originally published.

and secondary schools. Historical data on enrollments in both public and nonpublic elementary and secondary schools biennially from 1925-26 to 1947-48 and forecasts of enrollments for each year from 1950 to 1960 are presented in table 1.

Nonpublic Elementary Schools

The proportion of children enrolled in nonpublic elementary schools has shown a slow but steady increase during the past 25 years. This year 2,754,000 children are enrolled in these schools, 12.1 percent of the total number of elementary pupils, compared with 9.3 percent in 1926. Catholic schools account for approximately 93 percent of all nonpublic elementary school enrollments. The high postwar birth rates and the increasing proportion of children attending nonpublic elementary schools indicate that about 4,000,000 children will be enrolled in these schools by 1960. Table 3 gives enrollments and enrollment forecasts for public and nonpublic elementary schools.

Nonpublic Secondary Schools

The nonpublic secondary school is highly responsive to the economic conditions of the Nation. This was demonstrated during the depression of the 1930's when the proportion of secondary school pupils enrolled in nonpublic schools dropped from 8.8 percent in 1927-28 to 6.3 percent in 1933-34. The school year 1939-40 marked the beginning of an upward trend in enrollments in these schools which reflected improved economic conditions. This trend is still in progress and, during the current school year, 10 percent of all secondary pupils are enrolled in nonpublic schools.

In contrast, public secondary school enrollments, having reached a high of 6,635,337 in 1939-40, began a decline which is still continuing. Enrollments in public secondary schools this year are 16 percent below their 1939-40 peak. Nonpublic secondary school enrollments increased 34 percent during the same 10-year period. The impact of the sharp increase in postwar birth rates is not expected to affect the sec-

Table 3.—Enrollments in Public and Nonpublic Secondary Schools Biennially From 1926 to 1948, and Forecasts of Enrollments for Each Year From 1950 to 1960

School year ended	Enrollments in secondary schools (grades 9-12)		
	Total	Public	Nonpublic
1926.....	4,132,125	3,786,071	346,054
1928.....	4,321,361	3,940,855	380,506
1930.....	4,799,867	4,426,708	373,159
1932.....	5,592,872	5,164,894	427,978
1934.....	6,096,488	5,715,608	380,880
1936.....	6,435,703	6,020,268	415,435
1938.....	6,747,674	6,269,723	477,951
1940.....	7,123,009	6,635,337	487,672
1942.....	6,933,265	6,420,544	512,721
1944.....	6,124,656	5,584,656	540,000
1946.....	6,237,133	5,664,528	572,605
1948.....	6,305,168	5,675,937	629,231
1950.....	6,240,000	5,585,000	655,000
1951.....	6,142,000	5,479,000	663,000
1952.....	6,168,000	5,483,000	685,000
1953.....	6,263,000	5,552,000	711,000
1954.....	6,408,000	5,665,000	743,000
1955.....	6,557,000	5,780,000	777,000
1956.....	6,825,000	5,999,000	826,000
1957.....	7,286,000	6,388,000	898,000
1958.....	7,753,000	6,780,000	973,000
1959.....	8,101,000	7,066,000	1,035,000
1960.....	8,349,000	7,264,000	1,085,000

¹ Revised since originally published.

ondary school enrollments until late in the present decade. In fact, public secondary school enrollments as large as those of the 1940 peak year probably will not be reached before the 1957-58 school year (table 3).

Church-affiliated schools enroll the greater part of the nonpublic secondary school pupils. Data for the year 1947-48, reported to the Office of Education by 93 percent of the nonpublic secondary schools, indicate that 87 out of every 100 pupils are enrolled in denominational schools. Table 4 gives number of schools and enrollments in nonpublic secondary schools, by denomination.

Table 4.—Enrollments in Nonpublic Secondary Schools, 1947-48

Religious affiliation or control	Number of schools	Enrollment	Percent of total enrollment
Total.....	3,068	597,751	100.0
Denominational:			
Baptist.....	20	3,297	0.5
Lutheran.....	18	3,433	.6
Methodist.....	21	2,974	.5
Presbyterian.....	22	2,956	.5
Protestant Episcopal.....	96	11,444	1.9
Roman Catholic.....	2,185	476,425	79.7
Seventh Day Adventist.....	52	5,911	1.0
Other denominations.....	77	12,376	2.1
Nondenominational.....	577	78,935	13.2

Three Presidents Meet



THREE PRESIDENTS met in Washington recently to talk over the work and accomplishments of the Future Farmers of America, national farm boy organization sponsored by the Agricultural Service of the Office of Education, Federal Security Agency. They were, left to right, President Harry S. Truman; George Lewis Hersman, III., national F. F. A. president; and John H. Kraft, president of the Kraft Foods Co. and national chairman of the sponsoring committee for the Future Farmers of America Foundation. President Truman, familiar with the work of the Future Farmers, expressed keen interest in the organization's current activities and plans for the future.

Bringing the Smithsonian to Your Pupils

by Elinor B. Waters

YOU DON'T HAVE TO be in Washington to view the exhibits of the Smithsonian Institution. This private foundation under governmental guardianship, with its variety of exhibits of scientific, historical, and cultural importance, sells photographs of a large number of its exhibits.

If the Institution already has taken a picture of the exhibit you desire, 8- by 10-inch glossy prints cost 40 cents each; if no picture of it has been taken, the charge is \$1.65 for the first picture and 40 cents for each additional print. In general, any permanent exhibit can be photographed which is not copyrighted.

Altogether there are 10 bureaus of the Smithsonian Institution. Six of them—the United States National Museum, the National Air Museum, the National Collection of Fine Arts, the Freer Gallery of Art, the National Gallery of Art, and the National Zoological Park—have public exhibits; the other four—the Bureau of American Ethnology, the Canal Zone Bio-

logical Area, the International Exchange Service, and the Astrophysical Observatory—do not have exhibits for the public.

Here are a few examples of the photographs you could get from the Institution:

UNITED STATES NATIONAL MUSEUM includes six departments, five of which have public exhibits.

History Department has pictures of busts, portraits, statues, masks, and scenes of historical importance. Its collection includes pictures of Abraham Lincoln, George Washington, Samuel F. B. Morse, Ulysses S. Grant and his family, Elias Howe, and the battle of the Monitor and the Merrimac. The original Star Spangled Banner, the desk at which Thomas Jefferson wrote the Declaration of Independence, a face mask of Lincoln, and Dolly Madison's sewing table are found in this department and have been photographed. The Department also has pictures of scientists including Charles Darwin, Sir Isaac New-

ton, and Joseph Priestley; period costumes; and dresses of the President's wives (or other official White House hostesses) from Martha Washington to Eleanor Roosevelt.

Engineering and Industries Department has several packets of photographs on the following subjects which it can lend to teachers or sell individually at the regular rate of 40 cents a photograph: American inventors, American inventions, land transportation, water transportation, pioneer steamboats, and typewriters. The Department also has pictures on wood technology, agricultural industries and manufactures, and textiles. For example, pictures of unusual coverlets, old models of sewing machines, and cork exhibits are available.

Anthropology Department's photographs include exhibits of human skulls showing the brain surgery performed by early Indians; the Herbert Ward African Sculptures, which are portrait sculptures of Cen-

tral African types, such as chief, slave, and witch doctor; and life-size groups and figures of Eskimo and Indians. Photographs of period art and of the cultural materials of Greece, Italy, and Egypt, are also to be found here.

Zoology Department has many exhibits of birds and mammals in lifelike positions, and a fairly inclusive section showing the flora and fauna of the District of Columbia. Many of these have been photographed.

Geology Department's exhibits include dinosaurs and other extinct monsters, as well as smaller fossil forms. A few of the other geology exhibits available in photographic form are ores, minerals, gems, and meteorites.

NATIONAL AIR MUSEUM has the largest aeronautical collection in the world. Although most of its exhibits are now stored in Chicago awaiting completion of a building to house them, many well-known planes are on exhibit in Washington and have been photographed. Lindbergh's "Spirit of St. Louis," Wiley Post's "Winnie Mae," and the original Wright brothers' Kitty Hawk plane of 1903, are three of the more famous ones now available.

NATIONAL COLLECTION OF FINE ARTS sells many post-card-size reproductions and 8- by 10-inch prints of any object of art in its permanent collection. You can get a catalog of the post-card-size reproductions on request. Its collections include sculptures, miniatures, enamels, carved ivory, glasswork, jewels, antique furniture, and paintings from the old masters to contemporary artists.

FREER GALLERY OF ART is devoted primarily to oriental art. Its extremely valuable collections include ceremonial bronze vessels used 4,000 years ago, carved jade pieces, pottery from many countries of the East, enameled glasswork of Syria, Chinese and Japanese paintings on silk, early Bible manuscripts, and miniature Persian paintings. The Gallery also has some American art, including a large collection of etchings, lithographs, and water colors of James McNeill Whistler.

NATIONAL GALLERY OF ART was discussed in an article by Dr. Raymond Stites, curator in charge of education of the National Gallery, in an earlier issue. (See *SCHOOL LIFE*, April 1950.)

NATIONAL ZOOLOGICAL PARK carries on educational, research, and recreational

activities. It encourages study of any kind that can be done without injuring visitors or animals, and has a limited number of pictures of animals (birds, amphibians, reptiles, and mammals) which you can buy at the regular 40 cent price.

To obtain any of the photographs mentioned above, write to the Smithsonian Institution, Washington 25, D. C.

The history of the Smithsonian Institution is an interesting one. James Smithson, an Englishman who had never been in the United States, left his entire fortune of \$550,000 to this country to found an establishment "for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men." He chose the name "Smithsonian Institution."

Legally the Smithsonian Institution has as its members the President of the United States, the Vice President, the Chief Justice, and the members of the President's Cabinet. It is governed by a Board of Regents, consisting of the Vice President, the Chief Justice, three members each of the United States Senate and the House of Representatives, and six citizens of the United States appointed by joint resolution of Congress. The Secretary of the Institution is its executive officer and the director of its activities.

New Publications of Office of Education

AN INSPIRING STORY about how grade-school children worked to make their town a healthier and better place to live is told in another new publication of the Office of Education, "Petersburg Builds a Health Program."

As a result of their efforts, these children not only made great strides in improving health conditions in Petersburg, but also added greatly to their own skills and knowledge. The "project," as it came to be known, had widespread effects on the entire school program.

Subjects ceased to be arbitrarily divided. Spelling and reading lessons took on new meaning, as they were necessary for carrying on the "project." Letters weren't make-believe, they were written to thank real people for real services performed. And arithmetic classes were devoted sometimes to counting and adding pigs or chickens within town limits, and sometimes to tabulating the results obtained from questionnaires.

During the course of the "project," the boys and girls tried many new techniques for gathering information such as field trips, interviews, questionnaires, and photography. They learned to share their findings with others by means of reports, maps, charts, newspaper articles, bulletin boards. Probably most important of all, they learned how to pool their information and to use suggestions from many different people.

Copies of "Petersburg Builds a Health Program" (Office of Education Bulletin 1949, No. 9), are for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C., for 20 cents.

"SPACE AND EQUIPMENT for Home-making Programs," a recent Office of Education bulletin, should be of interest to home economists and school building people.

The booklet is designed to help teachers, supervisors, architects, school boards, and

all those concerned with planning home-making departments. It presents suggestions for planning location and lay-out, furnishings, equipment, and storage facilities; and it gives some general considerations in building plus a few hints on making the department safe, sanitary, and attractive.

Ata Lee, program specialist for the home economics education service of the Office of Education and author of the booklet, emphasized that "The present day homemaking curriculum includes all the areas of homemaking involved in the management of a home and in providing for the welfare of the family."

For quick and easy checking, there's a list in the appendix which reminds those planning a homemaking department of the space and equipment they should think about including.

This publication (Office of Education Miscellaneous No. 9) may also be ordered from the Superintendent of Documents. It costs 35 cents.

—Elinor B. Waters.

The Office of Education—Its Services and Staff

Division of Vocational Education

THE DIVISION of Vocational Education administers Federal funds appropriated by Congress for this type of education, promulgates policies which govern the use of these funds, aids States in determining what their vocational education needs are, how to provide for them, and in many other ways assists the individual States in promoting and developing their vocational education programs. The Division provides services in the fields of agriculture, business, home economics, trades and industry, and occupational information and guidance. Its administrative functions are performed through the office of the Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education, which also provides service to the States to facilitate program planning and the development of an adequate program of vocational education for youth and adults in city and country.

The program of vocational education in the United States has been developed in conformity with the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act, approved by the Congress February 23, 1917. Supplementary acts have been enacted from time to time.

THIS IS THE SECOND in a series of statements appearing in *SCHOOL LIFE* on the work of the Office of Education. Services and staff members of the Division of Vocational Education and the Division of Higher Education are reported in this month's presentation.

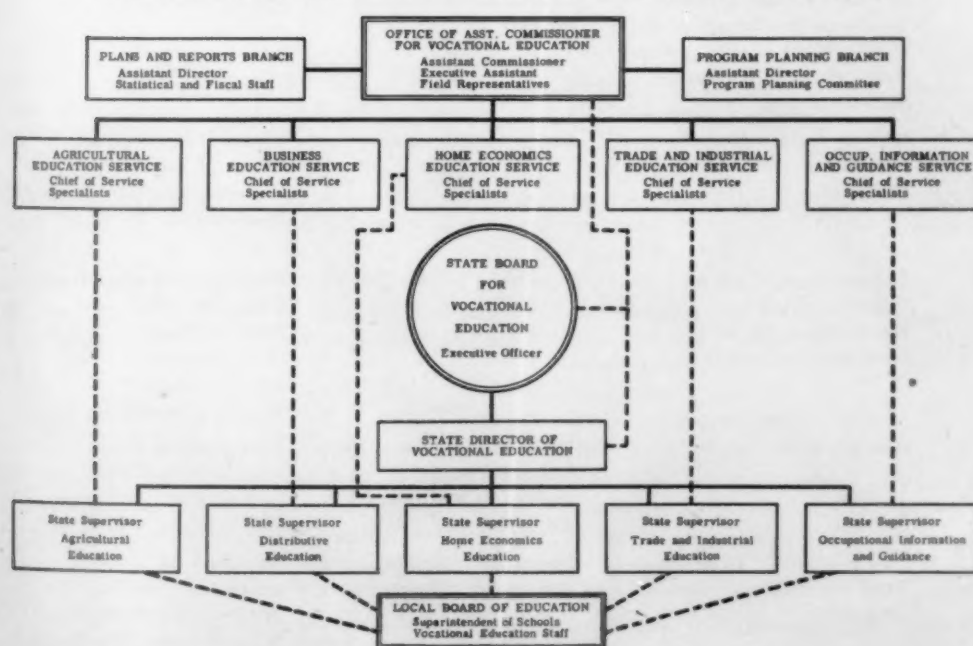
The latest of these is the Vocational Education Act of 1946, commonly known as the George-Barden Act. The Smith-Hughes and George-Barden Acts are the only acts currently effective. These and the several other vocational education acts were passed for the purpose of promoting and developing vocational education through a plan for cooperation between the Federal Government and the States.

This plan of cooperation for the development of vocational education is based upon two fundamental ideas: (1) That vocational education is a matter of national interest and essential to the national welfare, and (2) that Federal funds are necessary to stimulate and to assist the States in making adequate provisions for such training.

The controlling purpose of vocational education is stated in the Smith-Hughes Act, "to fit for useful employment," i. e., to provide training to develop skills, abilities, understandings, attitudes, working habits, and appreciations, and to impart knowledge and information needed by workers to enter and make progress in employment on a useful and productive basis. Vocational education is an integral part of the total education program. It makes a contribution toward the development of good citizens, including their health, social, civic, cultural, and economic interests.

The needs of two distinct groups of people are recognized by the acts in stating that the education provided shall be designed to meet the needs of persons over 14 years of age (1) who are preparing for, or (2) who have entered upon, the work of various occupations in the fields of agriculture, distributive occupations, home economics, and trades, and industry. Vocational education is intended to meet the training needs of persons who are preparing for employment and to supplement or extend training for those who are employed. Training opportunities are not restricted to young persons who are enrolled in the regular day schools but are extended to serve all out-of-school youth and adults, both employed and unemployed, who are in need of the kinds of training which can be provided best in organized classes.

FEDERAL-STATE-LOCAL RELATIONS IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION



Staff Vocational Education Division

Office of Assistant Commissioner

RAYMOND W. GREGORY, Assistant U. S. Commissioner for Vocational Education and Director, Division of Vocational Education.

JERRY R. HAWKE, Executive Assistant for Vocational Education.

JAMES R. COXEN, Assistant Director, Division of Vocational Education, in charge of Program Planning.

WARD P. BEARD, Assistant Director, Division of Vocational Education in charge of Plans and Reports.

JAMES W. KELLY, Field Representative (Pacific Region).

EDWARD G. LUDTKE, Field Representative (Southern Region).

(Continued on page 127)

How To Obtain U. S. Government

THE following chart contains information on those Government films which were available for public use in the United States on March 15, 1950. Because of space limitations, agencies with only a few such films have been omitted from the chart.

<i>U. S. Government Agency</i>	<i>Kinds of Films</i>	<i>How To Borrow or Rent Films¹</i>	<i>How To Purchase Films</i>	<i>For Further Information Write to</i>
■ Department of Agriculture (including the Forest Service and Soil Conservation Service).	172 information and training films on agriculture, conservation, forestry, gardening, home economics, and the natural sciences.	Borrow from State Extension Services, regional offices of the Forest Service and Soil Conservation Service, and other official USDA film depositories. Rent from some educational film libraries.	From Castle Films, Division of United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave., New York 29, N. Y.	Motion Picture Service, Office of Information, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington 25, D. C.
■ Department of the Air Force.	31 information and public relations films; 24 training films on aviation subjects.	Borrow public relations films from Air Matériel Area Headquarters of Air Force. Rent training films from some educational film libraries.	Purchase training films and 23 of the public relations films from Castle Films. Other films not for sale.	Office of Public Information, National Military Establishment, Washington 25, D. C.
■ Department of the Army.	323 training and information films.	Borrow from Army Area Headquarters. Rent from some educational film libraries.	Purchase 261 of the films from Castle Films. Other films not for sale.	Office of Public Information, National Military Establishment, Washington 25, D. C.
■ Civil Aeronautics Administration (Department of Commerce).	200 CAA, Air Force, and Navy films on aeronautics and related subjects for aviation education.	Borrow from CAA, Washington 25, D. C., or from regional offices of the CAA.	Not for sale.	Office of Aviation Development, Civil Aeronautics Administration, U. S. Department of Commerce, Washington 25, D. C.
■ Coast Guard (Treasury Department)	22 information films on Coast Guard activities; 16 training films on seamanship.	Borrow information films from Coast Guard Districts or Coast Guard Headquarters, Washington 25, D. C. Rent training films from some educational film libraries.	Purchase training films from Castle Films. Information films not for sale.	U. S. Coast Guard, Treasury Department, Washington 25, D. C.
■ Office of Education (Federal Security Agency).	457 vocational and industrial training films.	Not for loan. Rent from some educational film libraries.	From Castle Films.	Visual Aids Section, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington 25, D. C.
■ Fish and Wildlife Service (Department of the Interior).	8 educational and training films on fishery.	Borrow from Fish and Wildlife Service, Washington 25, D. C., or from regional offices.	Purchase 5 films from Castle Films; other films not for sale.	Branch of Commercial Fisheries, Fish and Wildlife Service, U. S. Department of the Interior, Washington 25, D. C.
■ Indian Service (Department of the Interior).	14 information and educational films on Indian life.	Not for loan.	From Educational Film Laboratory, U. S. Indian School, Santa Fe, N. Mex.	Educational Film Laboratory, U. S. Indian School, Santa Fe, N. Mex.
■ Institute of Inter-American Affairs.	30 information films on health, agricultural, and general subjects.	Not for loan. Rent from some educational film libraries.	From Institute of Inter-American Affairs.	Institute of Inter-American Affairs, 499 Pennsylvania Ave. NW., Washington 25, D. C.

Government Motion Pictures, 1950

compiled by Seerley Reid, Assistant Chief, Visual Aids to Education

U. S. Government Agency	Kinds of Films	How To Borrow or Rent Films ¹	How To Purchase Films	For Further Information Write to
■ Office of Inter-American Affairs (terminated in 1946).	78 films on Latin-American countries and people; 5 films on Ohio.	Not for loan. Rent from some educational film libraries.	Purchase 68 films from Castle Films; other 15 films from Institute of Inter-American Affairs.	Division of Public Liaison, U. S. Department of State, Washington 25, D. C.
■ Marine Corps (Navy Department).	13 public information and recruiting films.	Borrow from nearest Marine Corps Recruiting Station or Organized Reserve Unit.	Not for sale.	Director of Public Information, Hdqrs. U. S. Marine Corps, Navy Department, Washington 25, D. C.
■ Bureau of Mines (Department of the Interior).	85 information films on mining and metallurgical industries and the natural resources of the various States.	Borrow from Bureau of Mines, Experiment Station, 4800 Forbes St., Pittsburgh 13, Pa., or from official depositories.	Not for sale.	Office of Minerals Reports, Bureau of Mines, U. S. Department of the Interior, Washington 25, D. C.
■ Department of the Navy.	22 information and public relations films; 430 training films on aviation, radio, science, shop work, medicine, and other subjects.	Borrow public relations films from Naval District Headquarters. Rent training films from some educational film libraries.	Purchase training films and 9 of the public relations films from Castle Films. Other 13 films not for sale.	Office of Public Information, National Military Establishment, Washington 25, D. C.
■ Public Health Service (Federal Security Agency).	20 information films on health, sanitation, and medicine; 50 professional films on communicable diseases.	Borrow information films from State or local health departments; professional films from Communicable Disease Center, U. S. Public Health Service, Atlanta 3, Ga.	Obtain authorization from Public Health Service.	Public Inquiries Branch, Public Health Service, Federal Security Agency, Washington 25, D. C., and Communicable Disease Center, U. S. Public Health Service, Atlanta 3, Ga.
■ Bureau of Reclamation (Department of the Interior).	7 information films on reclamation in the West.	Borrow from Bureau of Reclamation, Washington 25, D. C.	Obtain authorization from Bureau of Reclamation.	Bureau of Reclamation, U. S. Department of the Interior, Washington 25, D. C.
■ Tennessee Valley Authority.	15 information films on the activities of the TVA.	Borrow from Film Services, TVA, Knoxville, Tenn.	Obtain authorization from TVA.	Film Services, Tennessee Valley Authority, Knoxville, Tenn.
■ Veterans' Administration.	12 films on veterans' activities and programs.	Borrow from the Visual Aids Division, Veterans' Administration, Washington 25, D. C., or from the regional offices of the VA.	Not for sale.	Visual Aids Division, Veterans' Administration, Washington 25, D. C.
■ Office of War Information (terminated in 1945).	32 war films used in the domestic OWI program; 13 films about the United States used in the overseas program.	Not for loan. Rent from some educational film libraries.	Purchase from Castle Films.	Division of Public Liaison, U. S. Department of State, Washington 25, D. C.

¹ Various regional offices, depositories, and other distributors are listed in "A Directory of 897 16mm Film Libraries," compiled by the Office of Education and available from the Superintendent of Documents. Price: 15 cents.

Legislation as It Affects State School Administration

Principles and Trends Across the Nation During the Past Decade

by Ward W. Keesecker, Specialist in School Legislation

IMPROVEMENTS IN State laws affecting the administration of State systems of education offer a challenging opportunity for constructive leadership in educational affairs. Experience in the development of State systems of education clearly indicates that the legal organization and forms and principles of State educational systems are vitally related to efficiency in education. Hence, those of us who seek to improve our State educational systems do not naively subscribe to Pope's idea:

"For forms of government let fools contest; That which is best administered is best."

However excellent may be the quality of school personnel, it does not supplant the need for wise legal organization and procedures in the administration of education. Constitutions and statutory enactments determine the structural organization and guiding principles of State school administration.

Constitutional Status of Education

Education under our form of government is committed in the main to the several States. The Tenth Amendment of the Federal Constitution leaves to each State of the Union the right and the responsibility to organize its educational system as it deems most appropriate.

With few exceptions, State constitutions make it obligatory upon their respective legislatures to provide for the establishment and maintenance of efficient systems of public schools. State legislatures are considered as having full and plenary powers with respect to educational affairs. According to the late Justice Brandeis:

It is one of the happy incidents of the Federal system that a single courageous State may, if its citizens choose, serve as a laboratory to try novel, social and economic experiments without risk to the rest of the country.

This freedom of experimentation on the

part of a State has applied also in the field of education, and under this freedom were established the beginnings of our present State systems of public education. Under this freedom, public education has come now to be the primary and biggest enterprise of the States. Quoting again from Justice Brandeis:

America has believed in differentiation, not uniformity, lies the path of progress. It acted on this belief; it has advanced human happiness, and it has prospered.

In most States the people have been content with few or limited constitutional provisions for education. For example, in most States it has been sufficient to limit constitutional provisions simply to that of charging the legislature with responsibility for an adequate and uniform system of education. Some go further and provide operational structure and organization and define the powers and duties of school officials.

Legislative Power Over Education

Public schools exist by operation of law. In this country public schools are the creatures of the State legislature acting under constitutional authority. Except as modified by constitutional restraints, a State legislature has plenary power over education. The legislature also has a choice to exercise or not to exercise its power; and there is no direct recourse for the people for failure on the part of the legislature to act. The legislature cannot be brought before any superior tribunal to answer for its failure to act. On the other hand, if it acts beyond its authority such acts may be overruled by the courts.

The educational prerogative of a State legislature is a vital one. The authority over education has been held by courts to be not necessarily a distributive one, to be exercised by local instrumentalities; but on the contrary, a central power residing in the legislature of the State. This principle has been aptly stated by the Supreme Court of Indiana in the following words:

It is for the law-making power to determine whether the authority (over education) shall be exercised by a State board of education, or distributed to county, township, or city organizations throughout the State. . . . As the power over schools is a legislative one it is not exhausted by exercise. The legislature, having tried one plan, is not precluded from trying another. . . . (23 N. E. 946.)

In the American Commonwealths, where education continues to be regarded primarily as a State function, the following basic legal principles may be noted:

1. State legislatures have absolute power to control public schools unless limited by constitutional provisions. (State constitutions generally turn the subject over to the legislatures.)
2. The control of education is in no way inherent in the local self-government except as the legislatures have chosen to make it so.
3. Public education may be a separate field distinct from local government.
4. The legislature having tried one method of school administration and maintenance is not precluded from trying another.

Significant Trends

The Chief State School Officer

Selection.—It is significant to note that the trend during the past 10 years has been definitely toward appointment of State superintendents by State boards of education. This trend is evidenced by legislation in five States, namely, *Colorado*, *Maine*, *Massachusetts*, *Missouri*, and *Texas*. *MISSOURI* in 1944, by constitutional amendment, changed the method of selecting the chief State school officer from election by the people to appointment by the State board of education;

The legislature of *MASSACHUSETTS* in 1947 changed the method of selecting the chief State school officer from appointment by the governor to appointment by the State board of education;

COLORADO in 1948, by constitutional amendment, changed the selection of the chief State school officer from election by the people to appointment by the State board of education.

In 1949 the legislature of TEXAS changed the selection of the chief State school officer from election by the people to appointment by the State board of education.

Moreover, in 1949 the legislature of MAINE changed the selection of the State commissioner of education from appointment by the governor to selection by a newly created State board of education.

These changes reflect also a trend away from election of State superintendents by popular election in favor of appointment by the State board, as evidenced by the States of *Missouri*, *Colorado*, and *Texas*.

Term of Office.—Legislation affecting the term of office of the chief State school officer in *Colorado*, *Maine*, and *Missouri* shifted from 2-, 3-, and 4-year terms, respectively, to an indefinite tenure—at the discretion or pleasure of the State board of education.

Salary.—Legislation in *Colorado*, *Maine*, *Massachusetts*, *Missouri*, and *Texas* left it to the State board of education to fix the salary of the State commissioner of education; provided, however, that the salary may not exceed \$8,000 per annum in *Maine* and \$11,000 in *Massachusetts*.

Professional Qualifications.—The new *Colorado* law provides that the State commissioner of education shall have "such professional qualifications as shall be deemed appropriate." The *Missouri* law provides that the State commissioner of education shall possess "educational attainments and breadth of experience in the administration of public education." The new *Texas* law stipulates that:

The State Commissioner of Education shall be a person of broad and professional educational experience, with special and recognized abilities of the highest order in organization, direction and coordination of education systems and programs, with particular abilities in administration and management of public schools and public education generally. The Commissioner of Education shall be a citizen of the United States and of the State of Texas for a period of not less than five (5) years immediately preceding his appointment; of good moral character; shall be eligible for the highest school administrator's certificate currently issued by the State Department of Education; and shall have a minimum of a Master's Degree from a recognized institu-

tion of higher learning. He shall subscribe to the oath of office required of other State officials.

It is significant to note that the legislatures in all five States have declared that the State commissioner of education shall be the chief administrative or executive officer of the State board of education.

Duties.—Recent legislation in *Massachusetts* and *Missouri*, with few exceptions, stipulated that the duties of the State commissioner of education shall be prescribed by the State board of education.

In *Colorado* and *Texas* it is noteworthy that, while making the State board of education the principal educational policy-determining agency, and while making the State commissioner of education the executive officer of the State board, the legislatures of these States also prescribe certain duties for the commissioner of education. Most of these duties are of the type which are usually assigned to the chief State school officer by a State board or which are customarily expected to be performed by the chief State school officer. The merits of the duties legislatively assigned to the chief State school officer must be measured in terms of whether they will promote efficiency in administration and clarity of relationship between the chief State school officer and the State board of education.

The recent legislation in *Colorado* and *Texas* affecting the relationship between the State board of education and the chief State school officer reflects a prevailing principle in American legislative procedure, namely, a disposition to separate the delegation of legislative or policy-making functions from purely administrative or ministerial duties.

State Boards of Education

Prolific changes have occurred during the past decade affecting the selection, composition, and organization of State boards of education and their functions. Legislation on this subject has occurred in no less than 16 States. Interest in this field continues unabated. Legislative changes during the past 10 years affecting the selection and/or composition of State boards of education occurred in *Arkansas* and *Oregon*, 1941; *Georgia* and *North Carolina*, 1943; *Missouri*, constitutional changes in 1944 and legislative in 1945; *Kansas*, *Indiana*, and *New Jersey*, in 1945; and *Massachusetts*, *Vermont*, *Washington*, and *West Virginia*, in 1947. In 1948 *Colorado* by constitutional amendment, implemented by legislation in 1949, reconstituted its State

board of education. In 1949 *Texas* reconstituted its State board. Moreover, in 1949 the legislature of *Maine* established for the first time a general State board of education.

What are the significant changes and trends manifest in these recent legislative developments with respect to State boards?

(1) A trend towards removal of control over State boards of education by the governor. A decade ago the governor was ex officio member of the State board of education in 15 States. Legislation within the decade removed the governor from membership on State boards in the States of *Arkansas*, *Georgia*, *Indiana*, *Missouri*, and *North Carolina*. In 2 of these States the governor was not only an ex officio member but was also chairman of the Board. Thus legislative changes in 10 years have reduced by one-third the number of States where the governor was a member of the State board of education, leaving 10 States in which the governor is still a member.

(2) A trend toward removal of appointment of the chief State school officer by the governor and his appointment by the State board of education, as evidenced in *Maine* and *Massachusetts*.

(3) A trend away from appointment of State boards by the governor. This was in evidence in *Maine*, *Texas*, and *Washington*.

(4) A trend toward removal of the State superintendent from membership on State boards of education. During the decade legislation in four States removed the State superintendent from State boards of education. These States are: *Colorado*, *Kansas*, *Missouri*, and *Washington*. In *West Virginia* the status of State superintendent was altered to the effect that, while remaining as a member of the State board, he was denied voting privilege on the board.

(5) A trend toward removal of all ex officio members on State boards of education. In 6 States—*Colorado*, *Indiana*, *Kansas*, *Missouri*, *North Carolina*, and *Washington*—the legislatures removed other State officials as ex officio members on the State board of education. (During the past decade, however, *Delaware* added two ex officio members to its State board.)

(6) The trend is toward larger membership on State boards of education. During the decade 11 States increased the number of members on their respective State boards of education. These States are: *Arkansas*, *Colorado*, *Indiana*, *Massachusetts*, *Missouri*, *New Jersey*, *North Carolina*, *Texas*, *Vermont*, *Washington*, and *West Vir-*

Current Legislative Problems With Respect to the Improvement of State School Administration

WHAT provisions and/or principles relating to education should be embodied in State constitutions generally? In dealing with a particular State, this problem is likely to present itself somewhat realistically as follows: What constitutional provisions should be added, deleted, or modified in order to improve State school administration?

★
SHOULD a State board and also a chief State school officer be provided for in the State constitution? If so, what provision should be incorporated with respect to them?

★
HOW should members of State boards of education be selected? What should be their qualifications? Also, how many members should constitute a State board?

★
WHAT legislative powers should be delegated to the general State board of education?

★
SHOULD all State educational functions be handled entirely by one general State board of education? Are there certain educational functions which should be assigned to separate or special boards? If so, what are they?

★
WHAT functions and/or powers should be assigned to the State superintendent? Should some of them be assigned by statute and some by discretion of State board?

★
WHAT statutory provisions should govern the functions and organization of State departments of education? What functions or types of services should be specified by law or left principally for the State board to determine? What types of legislative provision affecting the organization of State departments are most desirable?

★
SHOULD the legislature designate divi-

sions or positions to be established in the State department?

★
SHOULD the State board of education be delegated with complete policy-making power without reference to standards to be established, or should the legislature lay down or indicate certain criteria or minimum requirements?

★
SHOULD the legislature stipulate any standard or criterion governing the qualifications of State superintendents? How should the State superintendent be selected? What relationship between the State superintendent and the State board should be established by law?

★
EVIDENTLY there is no general agreement on the best answers to the foregoing problems, and their answers may vary from State to State. However, the benefits or lessons of experience in one State should be helpful in another.

Observations and Conclusions

STATE legislatures are free to change or adjust school laws to meet changing conditions.

★
PRESENT conditions in school administration emphasize a need for legislators to consult with educational authorities.

★
IT IS DESIRABLE that legislation affecting State school administration conform to the best opinion of authorities in education, and that it shall follow carefully worked-out systems which have been found to produce good results.

★
FEWER statutory prescriptions accompanied by an extension of discretionary powers in State school officials would apparently enable the development of more flexible and efficient systems of State school administration.

★
LAWS which require uniformity in administration to all may stifle the natural educational and administrative processes.

LEGAL provisions governing State school administration are not susceptible to separation from local school administration. The separation of State functions from local administrative functions is a constant problem in school administration.

★
WHATEVER the degree of State administrative control, it should secure local cooperation, mutual respect and confidence, and promote local initiative and freedom of action.

★
A STUDY of varying types of State laws governing State school administration emphasizes the importance of developing some scientific method for measuring the results or effects of different legal provisions. Actual experimentation in this area is inadequate. After many years of experience with various types of school laws and much theorizing, school administrators as well as legislators do not yet agree on what constitutes the best legislative provisions, or what provisions produce the more desirable results.

★
SCHOOL administration may not be an exact science, but its procedure may be subject to objective appraisal in terms of results obtained. The science of education may yet work out the technique to determine with reasonable assurance that certain legislative provisions governing school administration are better than others.

★
FINALLY, the experience and research of educators form the basis for the conclusion that those States which (a) place in their constitutions general statements of fundamental objective of the public school program; (b) enact laws to enable a State education department of professional executives to determine more detailed rules and standards; and (c) authorize State and local school officials to apply, enforce, and when desirable, alter these rules in order to secure best educational results, are following the wisest legislative procedure.

ginia. The range of increase is from 1 additional member in *Arkansas* and *Georgia* to 11 additional members in *Texas*. Membership on State boards of education now ranges from 3 members in *Mississippi* and *Oregon* to 21 members in *Texas*.

Still other significant changes were made with respect to the State boards of education and the method of their selection.

(7) The trend is toward the abolition of constitutionally created ex officio State boards of education. This is evidenced by constitutional changes in *Missouri* and *Colo-*

rado. *Missouri* in 1944, by constitutional amendment, abolished the ex officio State board of four members and established a new State board of eight members appointed by the governor. In 1948 *Colorado*, by constitutional amendment, abolished its three-member ex officio board and established a State board of education whose members are chosen by popular election, one from each congressional district (if even number of congressional districts, then one additional member elected at large).

(8) Most recent legal changes during the decade reflect a tendency toward the selection of State board members by popular vote, as was manifest in *Colorado* and *Texas* in 1948 and 1949. Both of these States adopted the system of electing by popular vote one board member from each congressional district.

(9) Finally, legislation over the decade reflects a definite trend toward vesting in State boards of education increasing responsibility for policy making in educational affairs.

SANITATION

(Continued from page 114)

older school buildings sometimes indicates a lack of awareness of the importance of sanitation in school buildings. Likewise, in many new school buildings protective



Ill ventilation and an insanitary environment for pupils.

sanitation seems to have been neglected. In too many cases the building funds are limited. The school people want space. Some patrons want to be able to point to a beautiful building. The designer with a product to sell may side with the patrons. The pupils need protection and service—they don't vote. A frequent end result is a cheapening of inside surfaces and services and, as a result, adequate sanitation is more difficult to maintain.

In too many cases monumental facades and ornamental trim may hide dank odorous toilet rooms and interior finish that cannot be maintained in a sanitary manner.

The above is not intended as a criticism of building beauty. However, the school buildings are erected for the purpose of protecting and serving pupils. The building should be planned from the inside out. The plant design should have balance. School officials should plan carefully that the funds desired for community-sized auditoriums, tournament seating capacity for gymnasiums, or ornamental trim are not obtained by cheapening inside finish and the facilities necessary for a satisfactory sanitation program.

Rough dirt-catching surfaces should be reduced to a minimum.

Floors should be nonabsorbent.

Cracks, crevices, and noncovered corners that might harbor dirt should be eliminated.

Wood flooring and wood trim should be well-seasoned and expansion joints should be protected from dirt.

In general, dark surfaces that help cover dirt are being used less and less in school buildings. Ample illumination and light surfaces are important factors in school sanitation. Some principles to observe are: Prevent dirt accumulations; if present, expose them to facilitate cleaning; remove the dirt.

Corrective Sanitation

Every school system should develop for each building a corrective sanitation program. Dirt should be removed as quickly as feasible. Suitable cleaning supplies and tools should be provided. Cleaners should be trained in the principles of and in the practices to be followed in maintaining school buildings. Cleaners or janitors should recognize the close relationship between cleanliness and sanitation. They should realize that dirt removal eliminates many of the fertile lodging spots for disease germs. They should not be permitted to use deodorants to cover up odors arising from sources that should be removed. Sanitary standards should be established for each school. Cleaners and building workers should be familiar with these standards and should be held responsible for the conditions found in the building at all times. There should be an adequate follow-up and/or inspection service that would assure constant compliance with accepted standards.

Adequate cleaning is essential to high levels of sanitary services in schools. For various reasons, school cleaning service is not always good.

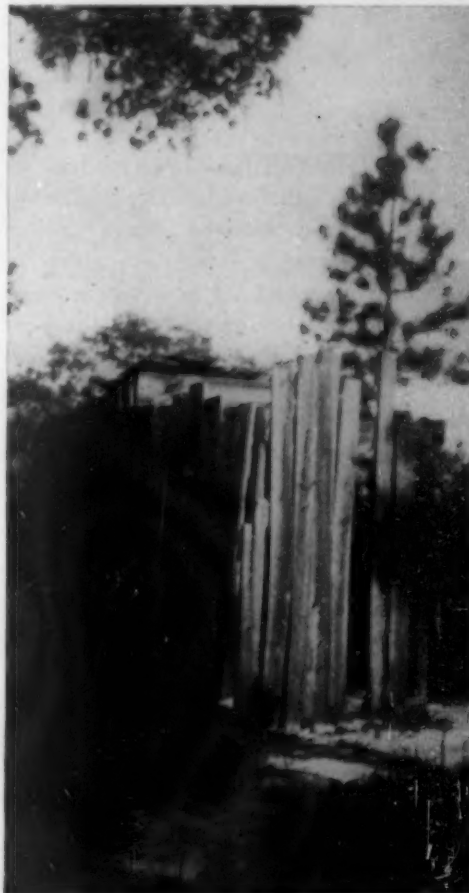
In too many cases the school custodian is not a skilled janitor. School custodial service was once looked upon as a flunky-type of occupation and too many of that type of men have been employed. In some cases custodians have been employed on a patronage basis and in other places the school custodian's position and salary have been reserved as a relief or pension for men unable to perform hard labor. In addition, there has been little opportunity for custodians to be trained in their work.² The men employed had little inclination to seek training since they had no assurance of continued tenure.³

² Viles, N. E. *Improving School Custodial Service*. Office of Education Bulletin 1949, No. 13. U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C. 15 cents.

³ Phay, John E. *Custodian Personnel Administration*. Reprints from *American School Board Journal*. March, April, May, June, July, and August, 1948. Milwaukee, Wis., Bruce Publishing Co.

Responsibility

Schools as public, or private nonprofit, institutions are not always subject to the same regulations and the same rigid inspections as are applied to some commercial activities and organizations. A few States have set up rigid rating and inspection sys-



Undesirable, but still too common, for many of the Nation's children.

tems for school lunchrooms, kitchens, etc. This service does not usually cover other phases of school sanitation. The fact that schools are not subjected to these rigid inspections contributes to the poor service often found. Schools have cherished functional and area autonomy. If schools are to have any high degree of autonomy they must accept the responsibility for providing sanitary and other essential services. If they do not have the machinery and the skills to provide such service they should turn the job over to someone or some organization qualified to handle it or go out and secure the technical help and training needed. The fact that the school is a public organization does not justify maintaining buildings that subject pupils to preventable health hazards every day they attend school. The public should realize that school sanitation is a sound investment.

Vocational Education Through the Cooperative Part-Time Diversified Occupations Program

by C. E. Rakestraw, Consultant, Employee-Employer Relations

OUR EDUCATIONAL system has its problems—the multiplicity and complexity of which tend to become greater with the increase in population and technological progress. School authorities, therefore, must be constantly on the alert for instructional methods, procedures, and types of organizations to suit changing social and economic conditions. These require frequent additions and adjustments in order that youth may be better prepared to meet his responsibilities as a worker and as a citizen. Educators and lay groups in general—particularly labor—have stressed the need for an educational program which will prepare youth for employment and at the same time provide him an opportunity to complete high school.

Within the United States there are 3,464 urban communities with a population of 2,500 or over. It may be assumed that in each community either a high school or other arrangement is provided which enables boys and girls to secure a high-school education. However, many hundreds of such urban areas have inadequate facilities or none at all for students to receive vocational training. In order to meet the needs of these high-school students better, not only in the larger cities and towns but the smaller as well, the Cooperative Part-time Diversified Occupations Program was planned and inaugurated in many local communities by State boards for vocational education. The express purpose of this type of program is to provide vocational training opportunities for high-school juniors and seniors.

Students enrolled in the program spend one-half day in employment in a chosen trade or occupation and one-half day in high school. Two periods of the time in school each half day are devoted to supervised and directed study of related and technical subjects pertinent to the student's chosen trade or occupation. The remainder of the time, he pursues the regular required high-school subjects. During the

half day spent in employment, the student secures organized and supervised work experience in accordance with a definite schedule of processes developed from an analysis of the trade or occupation. This on-the-job instruction is organized in such manner as to permit him, by the end of the 2-year period, to receive experience in all phases or jobs included in the training outline.

The in-school and work experience schedules may be arranged so that these students can earn sufficient credits during the 2 years they are in this program to graduate at the end of their senior year. The student then possesses a high-school diploma plus 2 years of training in his chosen trade or occupation. For the Cooperative Part-time Diversified Occupations Program to function effectively, school authorities must insist that it be established and conducted in accordance with approved standards. The coordinator must have a thorough understanding and appreciation for organizing the program in conformity with such standards. Briefly stated these are in connection with:

1. Creating and utilizing the services of a representative advisory committee.
 2. Determining training opportunities in the community and selecting trades or occupations which should be included in the program.
 3. Determining and selecting industrial and business establishments in which to place students for training.
 4. Selecting qualified students for enrollment in the program.
 5. Developing, from trade or occupational analyses, schedules of processes to be learned on the job by the student.
 6. Preparing outlines of related and technical subjects, correlated with work experience.
 7. Placement of students for work experience in accordance with Federal, State, and local employment regulations.
- The name Cooperative Part-time Diversi-

fied Occupations Program was selected because of the range of occupational training opportunities which can be included. Each student receives instruction designed to prepare him for a specific vocation and does not, as the terms might imply, receive just a smattering of training in a diversity of occupations.

Since boys and girls enrolled spend part of the day in school and part in employment, the title of student-learner is used. Under certain conditions where programs are conducted in conformity with approved standards, student-learner certificates may be issued by the Administrator of the Wage and Hour Division of the United States Department of Labor which permit employment at a beginning wage less than the minimum required by the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938.

Summer School Guide

"LAST SUMMER our institutions of higher education attracted more than twice the number of students they had 10 years ago," said Earl James McGrath, U. S. Commissioner of Education, in the *Scholastic Teacher*, issue of March 1, 1950. This issue features a teachers' guide to more than 550 summer schools and tours for 1950. Address: 7 East Twelfth Street, New York 3, N. Y.

Study Braille Codes of All Countries

UNESCO is working on a plan to standardize the Braille system in all languages. At the present time, China, India, and other countries use six or more conflicting Braille codes. Miss Marjorie Hooper, of the United States, working with a group of seven others, will endeavor to rationalize the differences in the various codes so that standard books for the blind throughout the world may be printed. Six members of the advisory group on Braille problems are blind.

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SERVICE TO the Nation's colleges, universities, and professional schools is the responsibility of the Division of Higher Education. This service is furnished through three major sections—Organization and Administration; Education for the Professions; and Liberal Arts Education.

Administrators of higher education and college and university staff members look to the Division of Higher Education for information to help improve institutional and individual efficiency. The Division's field of interest covers such problems as educational organization on institutional, State, regional, and national levels; finance, including both sources of income and purposes of expenditures, as well as systems of financial and student accounting used; and student personnel services. Also within the scope of this Division's interest and research are materials and methods of instruction in the various subject-matter fields, such as the social sciences or physics. Special attention is given to problems of professional preparation in such fields as teacher education, the health professions, and engineering. One staff member devotes full time to the special problems of higher education for Negroes.

The Morrill-Nelson and Bankhead-Jones funds for instruction in the 69 land-grant colleges and universities, are handled through the Division of Higher Education.

In addition to publishing the results of its studies, the Division is responsible for a semimonthly publication, HIGHER EDUCATION, which is distributed to all the institutions of higher education without charge and to individuals on subscription, price 75 cents per year. The Division also prepares the annual Directory of Higher Education in which appear essential data about each of the 1,808 colleges and universities throughout the country.

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FOR 50,000,000 ADULTS

(Continued from page 115)

seems required. In general, though, poor readers are not highly interested in reading and, as many are in the lower economic groups, they have less purchasing power.

Further invention in the publishing field seems needed. The answer may lie in some combination of pictures and line drawings, controlled low reading level, attractive format, large type, color, pocket size, pamphlet thickness, and low cost. Maybe each issue of a periodical could carry enough specialized material to warrant a special subtitle which could appeal to regular readers and to those having specific interests. Undoubtedly a combination of distribution channels would be required—certainly newsstands, corner stores, and all the pocketbook outlets. Or materials especially slanted to and sold through certain organized groups such as churches, labor unions, farmers, lodges, and nationality clubs, may be the way.

The answer is yet to be found and demonstrated. A market of approximately 50,000,000 people awaits the writers and publishers who can solve the problem.

New Books and Pamphlets

Adult Education in Rural Communities, by Yang Hsin-Pao. *Developing Adult Education Programmes*, by Homer Kempfer. Paris, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 1950. 27 p. (Occasional Papers in Education) Processed.

America's Stake in Human Rights. By Ryland W. Crary and John T. Robinson. Washington, D. C., The National Council for the Social Studies, 1949. 51 p. Illus. (The National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin No. 24) 25 cents.

Curriculum Revision for More Effective Living. Prepared under the Direction of the Social Science Department of Western Illinois State College. Macomb, Ill., West-

ern Illinois State College, 1950. 69 p. Illus. (The Western Illinois State College Bulletin, vol. 29, No. 3).

Group Thinking and Conference Leadership: Techniques of Discussion. By William E. Utterback. New York, Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1950. 248 p. \$2.50.

Practical School Administration. By Albert J. Huggett. Champaign, Ill., The Garrard Press, 1950. 284 p. \$3.

Radio and Television Acting: Criticism, Theory and Practice. By Edwin Duerr. New York, Rinehart and Co., Inc., 1950. 417 p. \$6.50.

Student Teaching in the Elementary School. By James B. Burr, Lowry W. Harding, and Leland B. Jacobs. New

York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1950. 440 p. Illus. \$3.75.

Surveys, Polls, and Samples: Practical Procedures. By Mildred Parten. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1950. 624 p. (Harper's Social Science Series) \$5.

The Teen-Age Driver: From the Program of the Driver Education and Training Section, School and College Division, National Safety Council, Held During the 1949 National Safety Congress and Exposition. Chicago, National Safety Council, 1950. 31 p. Illus. 15 cents.

The Theory and Practice of Teaching. By Ernest E. Bayles. New York, Harper & Brothers, 1950. 362 p. (Education for Living Series) \$3.

—Compiled by Susan O. Futterer, Associate Librarian, Federal Security Agency Library.

Selected Theses in Education

THE THESES in this list are selected from many on file in the Education collection of the Federal Security Agency Library and are available for interlibrary loan upon request.

An Analysis of the Work Being Done by Existing Agencies in Marion and Vigo Counties in Indiana Toward the Educational and Physical Development of Crippled Children. By Martha C. Stanger. Master's, 1947. Indiana State Teachers College. 106 p. ms.

Discusses the work being done by public and private organizations for the education and physical development of the 297 crippled children in Vigo County and for the 1,380 crippled children in Marion County.

Children's Interests in Moving Pictures, Radio Programs, and Voluntary Book Reading. By Florence E. Hickey. Master's, 1948. Boston University. 139 p. ms.

Surveys the interests of children in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades in these activities.

Children's Voluntary Reading as an Expression of Individuality. By Mary H. B. Wollner. Doctor's, 1949. Teachers College, Columbia University. 117 p.

Analyzes data on the voluntary reading of eighth-grade pupils in the Horace Mann—Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, in 1944-45. Studies data on psychological and environmental factors, and their reading activity in terms of the number of books read and the amount of time devoted to reading.

Developing a Reading Readiness Program in a First Grade in Waverly School. By Ruth L. Bynum. Master's, 1946. Hampton Institute. 110 p. ms.

Discusses environmental factors influencing reading readiness in a Negro elementary school in Columbia, S. C.

The Function of the University in Teacher Training. By Evan R. Collins. Doctor's, 1946. Harvard University. 235 p. ms.

Traces briefly the history of the development of teacher training. Discusses concepts fundamental to the university training of teachers.

A Study of the Factual Knowledge of Current Events Possessed by 1,000 High-School Seniors. By Vyron L. Jones. Master's, 1947. Indiana State Teachers College. 50 p. ms.

Analyzes results of a specially constructed test which was administered to more than 1,000 high-school seniors in 19 schools of West Central Indiana, including rural and urban high schools of varying sizes. Recommends that a period each week be set aside for the study of current events.

The Value of Dramatics as an Activity in the Fairfield Township School, Hamilton, Ohio. By Doris M. Lusk. Master's, 1948. University of Cincinnati. 82 p. ms.

Concludes that dramatics is equal in value to music and athletics and should be given a place in the curriculum.

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